DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 346 995 PS 020 671

AUTHOR	Hill, Patty Smith
TITLE	Kindergarten.
INSTITUTION	Association for Childhood Education International, Wheaton, MD.
PUB DATE	92
NOTE	34p.; A reprint from "The American Educator Encyclopedia."
AVAILABLE FROM	Association for Childhood Education International, 11501 Georgia Avenue, Suite 315, Wheaton, MD 20902 ($5).
PUB TYPE	Historical Materials (060)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Child Health; Childrens Literature; Educational Change; *Educational History; *Educational Improvement; *Educational Philosophy; Educational Theories; Elementary School Curriculum; *Kindergarten; *Kindergarten Children; Preschool Curriculum; Preschool Education; Primary Education; Private Financial Support; Teaching Methods
IDENTIFIERS	Froebel (Friedrich); Oberlin (Jean Frederic); Owen (Robert)

ABSTRACT

This reprint of an encyclopedia article describes the history of kindergarten education through approximately 1940. Kindergarten is defined as "a specialized school adapted to the nature and needs of young children from the fourth to the sixth year." Kindergarten was originated by Friedrich Froebel in Germany around 1840. Froebel's predecessors included Jean Frederic Oberlin, who established a preschool in Alsace (1774), and Robert Owen, who established a school for young children in New Lanark, Scotland (1800). The early kindergarten movement in the United States was influenced by philanthropic support and the psychological and philosophical ideas popular after 1890. The continued development of kindergarten in America was influenced by the work of G. Stanley Hall and John Dewey. By 1940, improvements in theory and practice in nursery schools, kindergartens, and primary grades included: (1) increased use of artistic play materials and equipment; (2) improved teaching methods; (3) an emphasis on sanitation and health; (4) improved standards for literature and art; (5) the use of hands-on experience in nature study and elementary science; (6) parental cooperation; and (7) a unified curriculum from nursery school through the primary grades. A bibliography of 45 items published between 1877 and 1940 is provided. A history of the Association for Childhood Education International through 1941, which was not included in the original encyclopedia article, is appended to this reprint. (BC)

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KINDERGARTEN

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For ten years, members of the Centennial Committee have been examining materials related to ACEI history. Many members of ACEI have suggested this work by Patty Smith Hill. This manuscript, which she developed early in her career, does state clearly the goals so important to those concerned with the education of young children. It is appropriate that this document be reproduced as we continue our work with and for children.

Lucille Lindberg - A. Esther Morgan
Co-Chairmen,
Centennial Committee

Kindergarten

by

PATTY SMITH HILL, Litt. D.

Being a Reprint from

THE
AMERICAN EDUCATOR
ENCYCLOPEDIA

Including three and one-half pages on the "History of the Association for Childhood Education"

Especially Issued for the
FIFTIETH ANNIVERSARY
of the
ASSOCIATION FOR CHILDHOOD EDUCATION
1942

Reprinted for the
SEVENTY-FIFTH ANNIVERSARY
1967

Reprinted for the
ONE HUNDRETH ANNIVERSARY
1992

PATTY SMITH HILL

Patty Smith Hill

Professor Emeritus of Education, Columbia University, 1935. Author: *Song Stories for the Kindergarten and Primary Grades,* 1893 (with Mildred J. Hill); *The Kindergarten,* 1913 (with Susan E. Blow), reporting for the progressive group as chairman of the Committee of Nineteen, appointed by the International Kindergarten Union; *Nursery School and Parent Education in the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics* (with Vera Fediaevsky). Annual articles in the Proceedings of the National Education Association. Editor of *Series on Childhood Education,* published by Charles Scribner's Sons, 1923—.

Director of Experimental and Demonstration Kindergarten, Louisville, Ky., 1889-1893.

Director of Louisville Training School for Kindergarten and Primary Teachers, 1893-1905.

Supervisor of Free Philanthropic and Public School Kindergartens, Louisville, 1893-1905.

President of International Kindergarten Union, 1908-1910.

Lecturer and Instructor in Kindergarten Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1905-1910; Assistant and Associate Professor, 1910-1922.

Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1922-1935.

Director of Department of Nursery School and Kindergarten, First-Grade Education, Teachers College, 1909-1935.

First recipient of medal for service to Parent Education, 1928; Litt.D., Columbia University, 1929; member of numerous honorary and educational societies.

Through the years the spirit of Patty Smith Hill has permeated the thinking and action of ACEI.

Dr. Hill died in 1946.

KINDERGARTEN. The kindergarten is a specialized school adapted to the nature and needs of young children from the fourth to the sixth year. It is based upon the laws of learning developing at this period of child life, when the young child learns naturally through his own activities before he is ready to learn through the printed page.

The kindergarten was originated by Friedrich Froebel, who instituted his first experiments in the education of the pre-school child in Germany from 1837 to 1840. The term "kindergarten" literally translated means "children garden," or a garden where children are growing as naturally as flowers. Thus the very name was intended to suggest growth —growth in the open air with sunshine and rain, under the guidance of an intelligent and understanding gardener who interferes only when the maximum growth of the plant demands pruning or transplanting to a more stimulating environment.

Froebel selected the name himself, after months of deliberation. He sought a title for this new school which would signify at a glance the fundamental differences between his more radical conception of the educational processes and those held by his contemporaries. These traditional conceptions were well exemplified in the schools of the period, where learning and development were supposed to take place under conditions which emphasized memory, recitation, receptivity and quiescence of both mind and body at the cost of the child's right to learn through self-activity. Froebel's philosophy demanded the introduction of such self-active processes as experiment, construction, excursions, discovery and invention. As his philosophy was based upon democratic conceptions of government, Froebel reconstructed his curriculum so that children could learn self-direction and social coöperation in a child society.

It was but natural that the freer organization of Froebel's elementary schools and kindergartens should arouse the suspicion of the Prussian authorities, rapidly gaining control of the Germany of the day. Persecutions followed, culminating in official prohibition of the kindergarten shortly before Froebel's death. This prohibition was in more than one sense a deathblow to Froebel himself and to kindergarten progress in Germany, for the kindergarten has never flourished in its native Germany as it has in more freely organized societies of other countries.

Had this governmental decree occurred earlier in Froebel's life, he might have realized the hope that he himself might bring the kindergarten to America. He prophesied that in America, where the principles of government were more in accord with his own political and educational philosophy of control, the kindergarten would prosper as in no other country. This prophesy has been more than fulfilled.

Among those liberty-loving Germans who participated in the unsuccessful Revolution of 1848 and fled from the totalitarian threat in Germany even at this period, were Carl Schurz and his wife. Such superior refugees as these brought with them the priceless love of liberty denied them in their native land. They also brought with them vivid memories of Froebel's successful experiments in the kindergarten and secondary fields, as they had seen them conducted by Froebel himself. Mrs. Schurz was especially interested in Froebel's application of the principles of self-government even with young children, in his belief that they could be educated in and through freedom to learn to respect, reverence

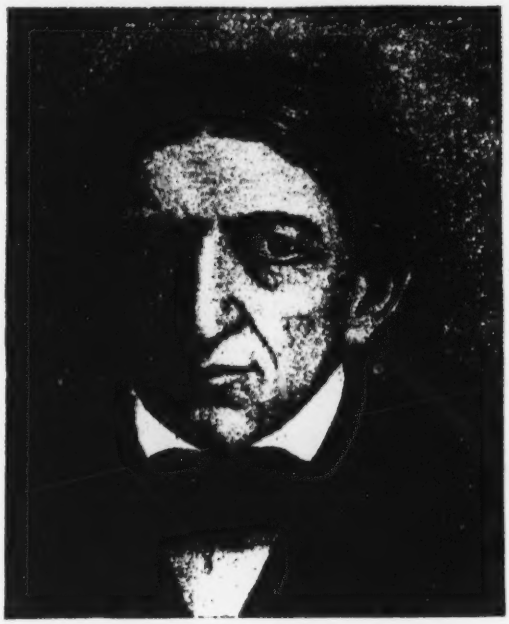
and demonstrate its value on higher levels in a democratic society.

The contrast between Froebel's conception of government and education may be clarified by a consideration of the analogies suggested in the significant name "kindergarten," as compared with those chosen by other educators, such as "infant school," "nursery school" or "house of childhood." Some educators still compare the mind of the child to a "fair unwritten page" upon which the parent or teacher may *write* at will; or, again, the child may be compared to clay and the teacher to the potter who *shapes* his products according to his own ideas and will. Even John Amos Comenius, a truly great educator and the earliest educational theorist to be deeply influenced by the relation of early infancy to later character, violated some of his own theories of education when he wrote, "It is the nature of everything which comes into being that while tender it is easily *bent* and *formed*." "Writing upon," "shaping," "bending" and "forming" are all analogies which omit Froebel's principle of self-active growth from within.

For this reason Froebel could accept none of these comparisons. He substituted instead the analogy of the child to a growing flower, the school to a garden, and the teacher to the gardener who carefully plans environmental conditions to protect from danger and to promote growth and development. As the teacher was ever to him a gardener, the term "kindergartner" came into being.

Other names for the kindergarten suggested themselves to Froebel. Among these were "institute for the self-teaching of little children," "play school" and the lengthy "school for the psychological training of little children by means of play and occupations." Later, in 1840, he hit upon the name that seemed to him to embody best his theories of education, calling out to his co-workers, "Eureka! I have it. Kindergarten is the word."

This new name made it possible to avoid the use of the word "school"—a problem he had in mind nearly a decade earlier when planning a "nursery" as the basis for a national scheme of education. In 1828 he wrote to a co-worker in this plan: "I shall not call this an infant school, because I do not intend the children to be schooled, but to be allowed under the gentlest treatment to *develop* freely."



FRIEDRICH WILHELM FROEBEL

In the light of this decision, he warned his early followers not to treat children as coins stamped with the teacher's own image, but as plants doing their own growing. Even Dr. Montessori, writing as late as 1908, in her great desire to inspire the teacher with respect and deep reverence for the nature of the child, compared the teacher to an astronomer reverently gazing at the heavens through a telescope and recording her observations. She evidently did not realize that her analogy, beautiful as it is, limits the teacher's duties to observation and record, without pointing out her responsibility for environmental changes and guidance.

GROWTH OF THE KINDERGARTEN

Mrs. Carl Schurz, who had studied in Germany under Froebel himself, opened a kindergarten in her own home in Watertown, Wis., in 1855, originally for the benefit of her own children. Later, in a visit to Boston, Mrs. Schurz met Elizabeth Peabody, a member of the famous Peabody family of Boston. The Peabodys were all noted for their rare ability as teachers, "making even Latin interesting."

Miss Peabody championed the new cause of the kindergarten, and endeavored to demonstrate Froebel's theories in her own kindergarten opened in Boston in 1860. Later, Miss Peabody studied in Germany, but unfortu-

nately too late to come under the tutelage of Froebel himself. However, she returned to America and devoted a long life to spreading the gospel of a new education for young children. As a well-known and respected member of the Concord School of Philosophy and the Brook Farm experiment, Elizabeth Peabody and her two sisters, Mrs. Horace Mann and Mrs. Nathaniel Hawthorne, won the interest of such intellectual leaders of the day as Ralph Waldo Emerson, Horace Mann, the Alcotts and William Ellery Channing. Also attending the Concord School were William T. Harris, later United States Commissioner of Education, and Susan E. Blow, who together were responsible for the opening of the first public-school kindergarten in America, in Saint Louis in 1873.

Unfortunately for the future of the kindergarten in America, some of the contemporaries and immediate successors of Mrs. Schurz and Miss Peabody studied under the more literal-minded followers of Froebel in Germany, who, attempting to carry forward his work after his death in 1851, sent to America representatives with a far more fixed and inflexible conception of kindergarten education than Froebel's. Some of the immediate successors of Froebel, including his second wife, tended to accept as final many aspects of the experiments originated by Froebel which he, with a more critical attitude toward his own work, would undoubtedly have discarded. Had Froebel lived long enough to secure the later psychological and scientific data which he so eagerly sought with slight success in his university studies, many fixed and formal aspects of his curricula would have been eliminated.

The Early Philanthropic Kindergartens in America. Even though these literal and formal conceptions of kindergarten practice were unfortunately transplanted to America, we must give full credit to the work of these pioneers, whose formal interpretations of Froebel were accompanied by other values which more than offset the disadvantages of the traditional curricula they introduced. In the light of their really great contributions we should not quibble over these mistakes, but remember that when the kindergarten was first introduced into the United States it survived as a philanthropy long before it was accepted as an organic member of the educational system. During this long probation period it was eagerly sought by missions, institutional churches and philanthropic organizations as the most hopeful form of social regeneration.

This was a period of national social awakening and religious disillusionment in America. As a nation the people were then gradually awakening to the new social problems resulting from enormous increases in foreign populations. The tides of immigration brought to American shores peoples difficult to assimilate and slow to accept American ideals and standards of living. Slums were in process of formation. They became sources of disease, crime, delinquency and industrial disorders, breeding centers of problems which America was unprepared to meet.

Religious disillusionment followed the efforts of churches to locate missions in the city slums, for the purpose of converting the dwellers therein. Thoughtful religious leaders with a new consciousness of the fact that an "overnight conversion," however sincere, might be only of temporary value, had to cope with the habits of character due to years of wrong living. The spirit might be willing, but the flesh was weak, and little could be accomplished through efforts to reconstruct adult society.

The kindergarten appeared on the horizon at the right moment for philanthropy, but at the wrong time for public education. Society turned to the young child as the one great hope, and kindergartens opened rapidly under religious and philanthropic influences all over America. They were located in the worst slums of the cities, and highly cultured and intelligent young women prepared themselves in normal schools supported by philanthropists. These young women entered upon the work with rare enthusiasm and consecration to the cause. No neighborhood was too criminal, no family too degenerate, no child too bad. Into Little Italy, Little Russia, Little Egypt and the Ghettos they went, offering daily care to humanity in its early years.

Both kindergartners and philanthropic boards soon saw the need of the ministrations of the physician, the nurse, the social worker or the visiting teacher. Funds were so low that the kindergartner taught in the morning and spent her afternoons as a social-welfare worker, eagerly seeking work for the unemployed parents, space in hospitals for ill mothers, sisters or brothers, searching for physicians who would remove adenoids and tonsils or dentists who would extract diseased

teeth, free of charge. This was the most important contribution of the pioneer kindergartners, as at this period the kindergarten was frequently the only social agency offering a helping hand in the rapidly-increasing slums.

Education and philanthropy were widely removed in those days. Schools accepted no responsibility for the physical condition of the child, or for the home which sent the child to school ill-nourished and diseased in body and mind. Thus the kindergartner of that day came into daily contact with family life at its lowest ebb. She was trained by necessity to see the child she attempted to teach handicapped in his learning by the social conditions of the home and slum in which he lived.

Philanthropic boards, with financial problems which they could not solve, then turned to the public schools asking them to adopt the kindergarten as the foundation grade in the public-school system. As an entering wedge, these philanthropic boards requested the use of vacant rooms in public-school buildings—for there were such in those days—and the kindergartner was allowed to enter, although somewhat as a stepchild. The least attractive room, left unused for this reason, was turned over for her use rent free. Salaries and running expenses were still being defrayed by the philanthropic agencies, which were convinced through experience of the educational as well as the philanthropic value of the kindergarten. The next step was to persuade boards of education to accept full financial responsibility, and the kindergarten soon became an accepted member of the public-school system.

Troubles soon followed, however, as the kindergarten was something of a misfit in the public schools at this period and for many years afterwards. In the first place, the long experience under philanthropic influences greatly increased the inherent tendency of the kindergarten to include in education responsibility for all those conditions in the home which hindered the learning and general welfare of the child. When the kindergartner entered the public schools she found no opportunities to continue this welfare work. There was no medical inspection, no school nurse, no school luncheon, no school psychologist, no social case-worker, no visiting teacher. The kindergartner's previous training, which included such ministrations as these, struck a strange chord in a public-school system.

Soon after the public schools were induced to adopt these philanthropic kindergartens, assuming financial as well as administrative responsibility, the proportion of children to teacher was heavily increased, to the detriment of child and teacher. In order to reduce costs per capita and to reach large numbers of children, the double session was introduced, with different groups of children for each session. This plan of necessity eliminated all welfare work formerly done by the kindergartner in the afternoons, such as home visiting, medical and clinical coöperation and various other forms of parental guidance and assistance.

The Froebelian philosophy as interpreted by the kindergarten included the all-round care of the child—in the home as well as the school. Even as early as 1840, we are told that a noted visitor to Froebel's first kindergarten in Blankenburg found the room empty and was directed to the fountain on the village green, where he discovered Middendorf, one of Froebel's first co-workers, teaching the boys to wash their feet and the little girls to mend their clothes. Such social welfare and community work as this was the heritage of the kindergarten from its earliest establishment, and it is unfortunate that this birthright was relinquished and temporarily lost when the kindergarten, under public-school administration, had to conform to the traditional procedure of the school in order to survive.

Adjustment to public-school conditions came slowly, but as educators became more familiar with and more reconciled to the self-active playing, singing, dancing and talking kindergarten child, there grew up a consciousness on the part of both kindergarten and primary teachers that there were but slight differences in the nature and needs of the six-year-old primary child and the joyously-working kindergarten child as promoted into the primary grade the day or week before.

Until this happy adjustment took place, the promotion of the self-active kindergarten children into the grades had made it possible for the poorest and most formal first-grade teacher to criticize and condemn the work of the best kindergarten teacher as well as the kindergarten cause, because of the wide gap that existed between kindergarten and primary ideals at that time.

All the activities and subjects of the primary school have their foundations laid in the kindergarten. We regard a kindergartner as most unintelligent if she fails to see her opportunity and obligation to discover and utilize the beginnings of all the school subjects in the spontaneous work and play of children from four to six years old. In like manner, we are most critical of any primary teacher who is not prepared to build the achievements of the first-grade level upon those mastered in the child's previous experience

ENJOYING PICTURE BOOKS
These children at Horace Mann Teachers College are taught to select and care for books from the kindergarten library.

in the kindergarten. While the majority of kindergartners still do not deem it wise to teach reading and writing as such in the kindergarten, the kindergartner fails as a teacher in her own field if she does not recognize and utilize the experiences in which the three R's originate. Standard tests have been created by which we may detect evidences of reading readiness for kindergarten use. If these can be used in the kindergarten, much positive information regarding the child's readiness for reading can be passed on to the first-grade teacher. This plan would save time in ascertaining the proper grouping of children in the first grade according to the level of reading achievements for which they are ready.

It must be granted that many children of six-year mentality are found in the kindergartens, and five-year mentalities in the first grades. These errors are easily located and should be corrected. It is also agreed that the kindergarten can greatly contribute to reading facility in the grades by: (1) broadening the kindergarten child's first-hand experience; (2) by helping the child to gain from these experiences clear images and ideas which may be easily recalled through the printed page; (3) by helping the child to deepen and clarify the ideas gained through varied modes of expression and by better organization of these ideas in his work and play, including oral language; (4) by encouraging the child to utilize these ideas in his play purposes and plans, improving these in both content and form through the application and use of ideas gained in contact with people and things. These are the backgrounds which will familiarize the child with the meanings found later in the printed page; but, when enthusiasts add to these normal backgrounds the reading activities of the first grade, some rightly protest.

Influence of the New Psychology and Philosophy. The new psychology, philosophy, and physical and social hygiene developed rapidly after this period, especially in American universities from 1890 on, under the leadership of such men as G. Stanley Hall, William James, William Burnham, John Dewey, Edward Lee Thorndike, Francis Parker, Luther Gulick, William Heard Kilpatrick and many others. As the next generation of kindergarten and primary teachers studied in these university classes, they began to discover the discrepancy between earlier and later conclusions regarding child development.

Convinced of this fact, a small group of kindergartners, under the influence of these thinkers, felt the necessity for a far more critical analysis of the traditional theory and practice of Froebel, as the basis for a reconstructive movement which they were determined to initiate. As a consequence of this effort to reconstruct kindergarten education as accepted by the majority of the pioneers in this field, marked differences of opinion inevitably arose, which later led to a decided schism within the fold.

These opposing views developed into two well-defined schools of kindergarten thought: the conservative group and the so-called progressive group, led by a younger group studying in university classes in psychology and philosophy.

Bitter criticism followed from the conservative wing, but it must be granted that each party was equally arduous in struggling to preserve the rights of the young child as each interpreted them.

These opposing views led to wholesome criticism, and a friendly but stiff battle lasting from about 1890 or 1895 to 1910. The controversy finally culminated in a happy adjustment with a truce called. From this time

forward both groups united in studying under the direction of all recognized leaders who could illuminate their common problems and enable them to initiate a more scientific program for young children.

At the present time, nursery school, kindergarten and primary teachers are well-nigh unrivaled in the open-minded enthusiasm with which they are studying and altering their curricula. These modifications of both theory and practice have been effected not only by the child-study movement, but by a social philosophy growing out of conclusions drawn from a rapidly-changing family life in a rapidly-changing society.

FROEBEL'S PREDECESSORS

To understand and evaluate justly the function of the kindergarten, as a bridge between the home and the school, it must not be conceived as a mere appendage to the school, but as an organic part of the whole system.

As we study the historical development of all other forms of pre-school education, including creches, day nurseries, infant schools and nursery schools, we discover that the industrial revolution created the necessity for more institutional care of pre-school children by rescuing them from deserted homes. The majority of these pre-school institutions arose in war-stricken areas, or developed as a result of a society changing from agriculture to industrial conditions of manufacture. The apparently large wage offered by the mill and the factory in the rapidly-growing cities loomed large in the eyes of poverty-stricken families in the farming districts of Europe. Wretched as were the living conditions of these ill-paid agricultural workers, they failed to take into account the fact that in the country they had at least an individual hovel with garden space to provide food for themselves, and such animals as a cow, pig or chickens which could contribute to their food supply.

The most serious disadvantage of the transfer from agricultural to industrial areas was the loss of the unbroken family circle, where the mother was still at the helm in the home, or at work with the father and the family in the near-by gardens, fields or shops. When slum life began, it soon became evident that the alluring wage of the mill could not support a family with rent to pay. Consequently, members of a whole family frequently were crowded into a room planned originally for one person. With no gardens for food production, family income could be increased only in three ways: (1) by transforming the mother into an out-family worker; (2) by the introduction of child labor; (3) by riots or strikes to increase wages. As conditions grew worse, and with increasing numbers of mouths to be fed, even tiny babies accompanied their parents as wage earners.

Among those who first discovered this tragic abuse of childhood, and who recognized the degenerating influences that were tapping a nation's strength and health, were the churchmen. One must give credit to the insight and humanity of these early religious leaders who opened the doors of the Church when they found those of the school shut against waifs, so tiny as to be useless even to the manufacturers. The sufferings of childhood during this transition period were beyond description, with three groups in dire need. Long hours of labor in mine and mill dwarfed the bodies and minds of the little wage earners early in life. Left in the home were two groups, both too small for the mine owner to covet in his greed for wealth: first, infants in cradles, unable to walk; and second, toddlers on their feet and so able to escape the home for a life in the filthy streets and alleys.

Two of the earliest of these humane experimenters were Jean Frederic Oberlin in Alsace (1774) and Robert Owen in New Lanark, Scotland (1800). Although Froebel is the best-known educator in the pre-school period, these predecessors and contemporaries of his made most worth-while experiments. In evaluating or comparing the originality and value of the contributions of these earliest practical experimenters, we must take into account their limited opportunities to learn from one another through travel or the press. Intercommunication between countries was at a low level of development, and costly. Could these pre-school innovators have known something of the experiments of others, they would have been more critical of their own work and their achievements would have multiplied.

Jean Frederic Oberlin. This great educator was affectionately called "Father Oberlin" by the grateful community which he lived to see reconstructed by his life-long ministrations. Apparently, he was the first to see the

necessity of an out-family institution for the care of young children, when the home was robbed of parental guidance by economic and social conditions.

Oberlin, coming as a young minister to the isolated district of Alsace, found the surrounding agricultural areas too devastated by war to produce food without fertilization, and there was a lack of funds with which to buy seeds or tools. He saw at a glance that food production was the first crying need. The pulpit seemed to him useless in teaching conventional religion to a pitiably under-fed, ill-clothed and ill-housed population, and he decided to use it to inspire and instruct the people in practical ways and means of alleviating their own want and distress.

Both fathers and mothers had to be taught agriculture and a trade. In order to accomplish this end, he found it necessary to withdraw both parents from the home, going with them into field or shop that they might learn, with and through him, agriculture, shoemaking, carpentry, blacksmithing, road building and similar occupations.

This left a group of small children in a home robbed of maternal care. These children were either abandoned to the necessity of fending for themselves in an unfriendly environment in the home or the street, or were turned over to the ministrations of an aged attendant, who in one instance was accepted by the parents as fit to care for children but too ignorant to act as pig herder.

It is to Oberlin that we owe credit for instituting the first school for the pre-school child to be taught by trained attendants outside the home and having a curriculum planned especially for the children. Judged by the standards of today, Oberlin's pre-school curriculum falls far short of the best in kindergarten procedure, but he was the first to plan a school for the young child which grew directly out of the needs of the community and the child.

The theoretical predecessors of Oberlin, who had ably pointed out the results of the neglect of early childhood, visioned the mother as a teacher, with the school in the home as the setting for teaching. This idea was more especially characteristic of Comenius, Rousseau and Pestalozzi. Credit is due to Oberlin for extending the scope of learning for the pre-school child into a new institution situated outside the home, with a curriculum which at least attempted to meet the needs.

Robert Owen. At the beginning of the new century, Robert Owen, a mill owner in New Lanark, Scotland, influenced by the broader conceptions of the rights of all classes of society, and stirred by the revolutions in France and in America, initiated one of the first and most interesting and valuable experiments in pre-school education. With his far-sighted vision of social need, Owen's infant school was only one part in his larger scheme for industrial liberation. As he had been a mill child himself, vivid memories survived and he was ever alert to the horrors of the industrial conditions which he knew as a child, and later as a mill owner.

Owen studied the results of these conditions upon the wretched homes of the overworked and underpaid workers. Both adults and children often worked ten, twelve or fourteen hours a day in the mills and mines to increase the family income. Throughout his long life devoted to the betterment of humanity, in Scotland and later in New Harmony, Ind., Owen lived to see three transitions in industrial power and the techniques of manufacturing. In childhood he saw the first transformation from hand-driven to water-driven machines. He was gifted in invention and later, as water power gave place to steam, he hoped to improve the conditions of labor by lightening its burdens and inventing labor-saving devices which he hoped would multiply production and increase wages. However, as the contemporary mill owners met his every effort with threatening opposition, he saw independent ownership as a necessity for the improvement in social conditions.

After establishing his own mill, he immediately raised the age for child labor, reduced the number of working hours, and opened schools for the mill children in the late afternoon and evening. However, in so doing he greatly reduced the family income by closing the doors of his mill to mere toddlers, and was confronted with a new economic problem when little children could no longer accompany their parents to the mills. It soon became evident to Owen's humane mind that, in rescuing mere toddlers from child labor in his mills, he condemned them to life in a home bereft of maternal care or to the streets of the rapidly-increasing slums in manufacturing districts.

As a mill owner he was at liberty to set up any new experiment for community salva-

tion. He immediately conceived the idea of an all-day school for babies, not as a "parking place" to relieve the anxieties of mothers working in the mills, but as a new institution with an environment of health and happiness for children at this stage of their development. This innovation was joyously welcomed by overburdened parents who responded immediately, appearing at the opening day of the school leading toddlers by the hand and carrying infants.

Again Owen was brought face to face with still another difficulty. He was not yet ready to establish what we today know as creches or day nurseries, for infants at the cradle period. He was forced to set up some barrier that would eliminate infants. It is said that the morning following the opening of the school, Owen announced his unique school-entrance requirement, namely, "ability to walk."

Although knowing nothing of Oberlin's experiments until many years later, when he visited Oberlin, Robert Owen's curriculum was far in advance of the one set up by Oberlin. He omitted such sedentary complicated activities as knitting, weaving, spinning and the acquisition of the three R's. All of these he felt were detrimental to health and interfered with the child's opportunity to learn things far more important at this age. In the place of such complicated occupations, Owen substituted larger manual activities through work and play in the open air, including excursions for teaching natural history. Especially did he emphasize dancing, because of its supposed value in developing mental, emotional and physical harmony and balance.

In the light of present-day emphasis on mental tests as a scientific means of discovering inborn mental inequalities, it is interesting to note that Owen, in his enthusiastic acceptance of the theory that all men are born free and equal, believed and taught that environment was the only cause for differences in individual ability.

Although Froebel knew nothing of the work of Oberlin and Owen when, forty years later (in 1840), he opened his first kindergarten, we still owe untold gratitude to Froebel's predecessors. Not only did they originate a new type of education for the preschool child, but they conceived it as an organic part of their larger scheme for community reconstruction. These two social innovators are worthy of study in all modern efforts to alleviate the wrongs of the laboring classes.

Owen, entering upon his experimental work a quarter of a century later than Oberlin, faced far more than the local small-scale problems that Oberlin solved with such great success. Twenty-five years later these local problems of Oberlin had developed into a world-wide industrial revolution. Owen was a farsighted pioneer in facing and solving with remarkable success the new conditions of family life which resulted when farm and village were deserted for the city.

NATIONAL DEVELOPMENTS

The names given to the nursery schools of England, the Houses of Childhood of Italy, and the kindergarten of Germany by the creators of these three pre-school educational movements are interesting as signifying a more or less conscious emphasis upon certain educational or social principles in the minds of their originators. It was but natural that the name "Houses of Childhood" should grow out of their social function in better housing in Italy. "Casa dei Bambini," literally translated "Houses of Children," emphasized the rights of the young child in all building reforms. As was stated earlier in this article, Froebel thought of the kindergarten as a place of growth and development—a children's garden—as opposed to the lifeless schools that emphasized abstract teaching.

England. The modern nursery-school movement in England was a direct outgrowth of the sudden awakening of the British people to the low physical status of their army during the Boer War. As an outgrowth of this awakening, the Consultative Committee of the English Board of Education in 1907 decided upon the nursery school as the best-known institution in existence for preventive and corrective work in health education. Rachel and Margaret McMillan, although born in America of English parents, went back to England immediately upon the death of their father. There they at once affiliated themselves with the desperate struggles of the labor movement, which centered first in the manufacturing city of Manchester.

As an outgrowth of their deep-seated insight and sympathy with the home conditions of the laboring classes, the McMillan sisters resented bitterly the fate of children growing up under conditions which doomed them to

A NEW ORLEANS NURSERY SCHOOL AND KINDERGARTEN
This nursery-school and kindergarten unit is a part of the New Orleans public-school system. We owe much to the English pioneers in the nursery-school movement.

chronic ill health or premature death. With the slogan "Educate every child as if he were your own," they consecrated their lives to the removal of the unjust inequalities of opportunity in early life. They conceived a plan for educating young children in coöperation with hospitals, instituting a new type of teacher-training including not only psychology and pedagogy as before, but hospital experience in nursing under medical supervision. With these principles in mind they decided upon the name "nursery school," in order to emphasize the nursing aspect of education.

In their early experiment in London, the McMillan sisters utilized for their nursery school a most unpromising "dump" contributed for the purpose, and by their devotion and genius transformed it into a blossoming garden. Their first ventures were financed by their own small fortune, reinforced with later gifts from other sources. As open air seemed to them more important than fine buildings, they invested more in land than in houses. They then resorted to mere shelters to be used only as protection from the most inclement weather. These open-air nursery schools introduced a new ideal of life in the slums, with the children participating in the rare, unaccustomed experiences of gardening and caring for pets, while sharing in the happy social contacts between teachers and children. These ideals were set up as new rights for children of poverty, foreshadowing the later Children's Charter of the White House Conferences on child welfare in America.

One of the most tragic results of England's two World Wars has been the necessary curtailments of funds for the continuation and development in Great Britain of the remarkable start made by the two McMillans and Grace Owen in spreading nursery schools.

Italy. Dr. Maria Montessori's knowledge as physician and psychologist led her first into experiments with children of low mentality and defects of the senses. These inborn inequalities she hoped to remove or reduce through intelligent teaching, using her "didactic materials" planned for the development of the senses. Later, upon an invitation from Edoardo Talamo, director-general of the Roman Association of Good Building, she took part in a reform movement in housing and opened the first school for the youngest children to be housed under the same roof with their homes. These Houses of Childhood, started in 1907, grew out of the fact that the beautiful city of Rome, proudly proclaiming herself the Eternal City, was slowly awakening to the fact that her lower classes were housed in eternal slums.

This inclusion of the young child's rights to space and equipment for play, housed under the same roof with his home, as instituted by Talamo and set up and conducted by Montessori herself, is considered by many to be her most important innovation in the education of early childhood. In this experiment Dr. Montessori not only saw daily evidences of the neglect of childhood, but with mothers and children near at hand for the study of the needs of both, she was impressed with the importance of liberating each from

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unwholesome dependence upon the other. She brought this about through training even tiny children in habits of self-reliance by her educational materials and equipment, so that they acquired skills in buttoning, lacing, tying and so on. Going still further, American teachers have been successful in inducing manufacturers to produce clothing for very young children so simple that the children can dispense with the rather complex finger and hand movements required for buttoning and lacing.

Self-care still remains a most worth-while ideal for teachers and parents, and, where school equipment makes it possible, American nursery schools and kindergartens include in their curricula the proper care of hands, teeth, and hair and proper sanitary habits.

Although the psychology and philosophy of Dr. Montessori have never been accepted by American psychologists, philosophers or kindergartners, education in America has profited by her contributions as a physician, especially in her emphasis on the necessity for children of differing abilities and disabilities to move at their own pace, solving tasks of their own selection. With these "didactic materials" children can continue to work almost independently, because the materials have been planned to be "self-corrective," much like puzzles. This system releases the child from teacher direction. However, being exclusively self-corrective, these materials leave no opportunity for the spontaneous creative and imaginative play of childhood.

Russia. The first educational experiment following the social revolution in Russia in 1917 was the initiation of a movement to provide protection and development for the youngest members of society from birth to the sixth year, including what in America is called the day nursery for infants, and the nursery school and kindergarten for toddlers. An organic part of this movement was the education of mothers under the direction of teachers, psychologists, psychiatrists, doctors and nurses. As the Russian reformers recognized the fact that eighty-five per cent of their population was illiterate, they instituted the use of posters illustrating correct diet, clothing and educational care of children. These large picture posters, with "Do" on one side and "Don't" on the other, were displayed in the rest rooms of mines and mills and railroad stations to catch the attention of fathers and mothers. Also, the Russian traveling nursery schools deserve special attention. These were set up in trucks and moved from field to field in the rural districts with the agricultural mothers and fathers near at hand for help and coöperation with the children.

Though Russia, because of economic and political handicaps, has never been able fully to put into effect this program, nevertheless as a national plan it has never been exceeded, and few countries have ever approached it. The only comparable undertaking in the United States has been the White House Conferences on health, endorsed by several Presidents. These conferences have continued from year to year, publishing perhaps the most enlightened statements in the world regarding what can and should be done in reducing the inequalities, inborn and environmental, during the pre-school years.

Germany. As we compare the different conditions which gave rise to the necessity for pre-school care of children as worked out by Froebel's predecessors, Friedrich Oberlin and Robert Owen, with the motives which stirred Froebel, we can but be impressed with the contrasting causes which forced young children upon their attention.

As one of the earliest "back-to-nature" adherents, Froebel was a lover of rural and small-village life untouched by the problems of industry and the slum areas of large cities. As a well-known educator he was invited to lecture in the larger cities of Germany, but he never could be induced to remain for any length of time, as his longing for rural and village life was too great to resist. Consequently, in reading what Froebel has to say about work and industry, we must remember that he knew nothing of the problems of Owen, who faced the cruel conditions of the early machine era.

When Froebel refers to the educational value of work and industry, he has in mind the village home or the small shop where children learn through apprenticeship to take their place in producing family food, shelter and raiment, under the conditions which he observed in the happier small-village life. These homely activities of family and shop he considered equal in importance to the acquisition of book learning gained through the printed page.

Froebel was obsessed with the desire to create a new type of education for boys and girls at the elementary and secondary level,

inviting men to be his co-laborers in applying his philosophy of education. The nearest approach to the necessity of facing education as a social problem came when he was called to Switzerland to take charge of a group of war orphans with all age levels represented. Here he had the rare opportunity of studying pre-school children on a twenty-four-hour program, with responsibility for their welfare night and day. These observations increased his earlier faith in the pre-school child as a candidate for education—one as worthy of respect as his older sisters and brothers, and with equal rights to education.

Froebel must have been giving a good deal of thought to this younger child for a number of years, as, in a letter written ten years earlier in 1828, he confessed his deep interest in education for children between three and seven years of age. Having won a reputation as a rare teacher of boys in his Keilhau school, with a curriculum which not only measured up to, but in some aspects exceeded, the best progressive schools of today, Froebel was more than ready to try his hand with young children below the school-entrance level as he found them in this Swiss orphanage. He eagerly grasped his first opportunity to study the learning ability and acquirements of children intellectually too immature to begin reading and writing. Here was a chance to create a new curriculum, applying his principles in what was to him a new and untried field.

He was deeply impressed with the waste which his observation revealed as he studied these young children under the control of ignorant attendants. Thus began his creation of a new curriculum based upon the natural tendencies of children at the pre-school age. His observations of these children endeavoring to learn something of the world about them, handicapped at each turn by the lack of play equipment and guidance, induced him to begin building a new curriculum of work and play. For this new curriculum he utilized songs, games, stories, gardening and building—activities all banned by the school of that day as worthless educationally or as an evidence of original sin.

From 1835 to 1840, Froebel continued his efforts in building the curriculum which was later put into effect in the first kindergarten, founded at Blankenburg in 1840. It is interesting to note that in the training of the children, who were three to seven years old, Froebel's first assistants were his able and faithful co-laborers, Wilhelm Middendorf and Heinrich Langethal. Even his early training classes for kindergarten teachers were open to men as well as women. In all previous experiments Froebel had utterly ignored the education of girls and women. This policy may be traced to the fact that Froebel did not appreciate the place of women either in social life or in education until quite late in his career. He was a motherless child, with no sisters, he married rather late in life, and he was thrown with men as co-laborers through his experience as a soldier.

During the last decade of his life, Froebel reversed this position, tending to overemphasize the superiority of women teachers and devoting his remaining years to the training of women as kindergartners. This latter trend was partly due to the influences of his two unusually happy marriages. His first wife, a highly educated, cultured woman of noble birth, contributed richly to his philosophy of life and education; the second Frau Froebel grasped his ideas readily, though adding little; yet she was gifted in demonstrations with children, illustrating Froebel's lectures as he traveled from city to city.

It is interesting to compare these early studies made by Froebel, without the help of later psychology and pedagogy, with those made in the psychological clinics under Arnold Gesell at Yale, George Stoddard at the University of Iowa, John Anderson at the University of Minnesota, Mary Cover Jones and her colleagues in the University of California, the Household Economics group at Cornell University, Edna White at the Merrill Palmer Institute, Detroit, and leaders in the former Child Development Institute of Teachers College, Columbia.

It is equally worth our while to compare both the observations of Froebel and the findings of these clinics with those of John Dewey. Later scientific research in these clinics has tended to confirm most of the general conclusions recorded before 1900 by Dewey, based upon his careful, poignant observations of children in his experimental school at the University of Chicago.

While many of Froebel's observations and conclusions are now superseded by more scientific data, all experimenters, from Froebel's day down to the present, are agreed upon the basic importance of education for the neglected first seven-year period of childhood.

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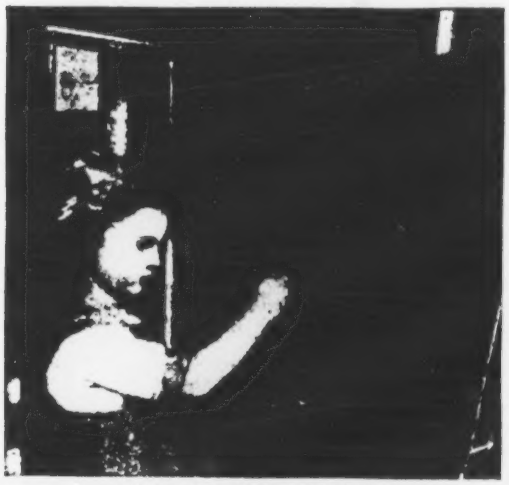
Froebel was one of the earliest students of such everyday acquisitions of infancy and childhood as learning to creep, climb, walk, run, skip and jump, activities formerly ignored or accompanied by the perpetual maternal "No, no." These activities are now utilized and encouraged in an environment



BUSY AT HER EASEL
Painting and drawing are kindergarten activities at the Horace Mann Teachers College. Froebel believed in such activities.

made safe, and with equipment eliminating danger. Since Froebel's day, even the disturbing babbling, chattering, chanting and endless questioning of little children are studied, and are utilized in social communication demanding an ever-widening and more accurate vocabulary. Had Mary's little lamb accompanied her to Froebel's school, it would not have been turned out because "it made the children laugh and play." On the contrary, it would have been invited to remain, becoming the subject of much conversation, questioning and experiment in educating children in the nature and humane care of animals. Such utilization of childhood experiences vitalizes a kindergarten.

Spontaneous drawing, now so universally accepted as a part of the kindergarten and primary curricula, was not recognized as a valuable means of expression until Froebel had invited the "whole child" to school—the talking, singing, dancing, drawing, constructing child.

It seems almost impossible to believe that Froebel knew little or nothing of his educational predecessors or contemporaries. So far, evidence points to the fact that he knew nothing of what had been accomplished by Oberlin and Owen. We do know, however, that he was profoundly impressed with the new political conceptions of liberty growing out of the revolutions of the preceding century and later that of 1848. The effects of the Romantic school of philosophy in creating the "return-to-nature" movement through Rousseau inspired Froebel deeply. This was especially the case when nature was interpreted to include human nature as well as the physical phenomena of the external world. The effects of this Romantic philosophy upon science, art, music and literature undoubtedly affected Froebel's curricula on all levels of education.

We also know without question that Froebel was deeply indebted to Pestalozzi, as he first visited him and later returned to study with him. He terminated this study in a short time, because of the very decided differences between Pestalozzi's philosophy of education and his own. Even this early in Froebel's career he realized that the emphasis which Pestalozzi put upon the training of the senses and observation as the chief objective in education, with work and industry as economic means to this end, was out of keeping with Froebel's growing consciousness of creative work and play as his fundamental principle, with sensory training and observation as a means of furthering self-expression and production.

We must consider the varied influences and sources of knowlege which came to Froebel from family, movements, reading and university contacts through study and social intercourse, in order to understand him and his life work. Illustrations may be multiplied of Froebel's eager desire to learn from every source.

Froebel's practical application of philosophy to education attracted the attention of the philosopher Karl C. F. Krause; and it led to a voluminous correspondence between them, which was followed by the gift to Froebel of a copy of Krause's writings. Later in life, we are told, Krause brought to Froebel's attention for the first time the theories of Comenius as embodied in the little book, *The School of Infancy*, or *The School of the Mother's Knee*, published nearly a century and a half earlier. Froebel's theories of play were unquestionably influenced by the reading of Jean Paul Richter's *Levana* and his *Letters on Aesthetics*.

Perhaps of greater importance than all of these influences were the theories of Froebel's older brothers, who returned from the University of Jena from time to time in their endeavors to protect and rescue the child Froebel from the cruel neglect and constant ill-will manifested by his stepmother. As her own child grew, she was determined to conserve all the finances of the family to send her own son to the university instead of sending Froebel.

In spite of her success in preventing the completion of his studies in any one university, Froebel later managed to study in several of Germany's best universities in his endless search for more accurate scientific knowedge. Though the youthful Froebel was too immature and unprepared to enter the classes of most of the great leaders in philosophy at the time, he absorbed a great deal through the social life of the students, as they endlessly discussed the inspiring theories of Kant, Fichte, Hegel, the Schlegels and Schelling in all social gatherings in the university refectories and beer halls.

In his maturer thinking and experimenting, Froebel was far more at one with the philosophy of Schelling and Krause than with that of Hegel. When asked later in his life how far his philosophy was in keeping with that of Hegel, he confessed that he was largely uninfluenced by the prevailing Hegelian theories, as he had neither been a student under Hegel, nor was he thoroughly versed in his writings. In this confession we have positive evidence from Froebel himself that he was not under the influence of the Hegelian philosophy so prevalent in Germany at that time and later transplanted to the Concord School, America's first outstanding philosophical movement.

This statement may seem an insignificant fact to include in any history of the American kindergarten until we point out that several of the American pioneer kindergartners were in attendance as students and leaders at Concord. Among those attending the Concord Conferences who later influenced and promoted kindergarten education were Elizabeth Peabody, William T. Harris (afterward United States Commissioner of Education), Susan E. Blow, his life-long co-worker, and Denton Snider, from the Elizabeth Harrison training school for kindergartners in Chicago. On the whole this group had more influence in creating early kindergarten philosophy than any other leaders until the appearance of William James and John Dewey.

The influence of such transcendental leaders as these on early kindergarten procedure is especially illuminating when we also take into account the fact that the reconstructive efforts of 1890, in being critical of Hegelian philosophy, came under the pragmatic sway of William James and John Dewey. Later critics of this early Hegelian emphasis in American kindergarten philosophy were ridiculed by Professor E. W. Scripture of the psychological laboratory of Yale University (1893), who quoted another critic as follows: "England was the place where good old philosophies went when they were dead. . . . Hegelian philosophy has gone to England." Dr. Scripture continues, perhaps more wittily than justly: "That remark was made many years ago; since then Hegelianism has found its home in the American kindergarten."

The importance of Krause, who was endeavoring to apply philosophy to life somewhat in the manner of the later pragmatic movement in America, was much overshadowed and neglected, it is said, because he was not in accord with the Hegelianism which dominated philosophical thought in the Germany of that day.

One of the causes for Krause's influence on Froebel was that after Froebel had written his *Education of Man* (1826) and proved the practical value of his theories in transforming schools into self-active places of learning and teaching, Krause took the trouble to familiarize himself with Froebel's practical applications of the principle of self-activity. Then it was that Krause urged him to draw up a complete national plan for the reorganization of German education. This so-called "Helba Plan" Krause offered to lay before the Duke of Meiningen, one of the most enterprising and liberal princes of the period. It is interesting that though this Helba Plan preceded the kindergarten by a decade, a "nursery room" for children from three to seven was the starting point and foundation of the plan.

Froebel and Krause were in such close accord at this time that they began to plan whole community experiments with schools as an integral unit, and Froebel proposed the possibility of establishing a "Krausian Experimental Community" based upon Krause's pragmatic conception of the close relation between philosophy and the everyday life of

the people. These two propositions to make philosophy a leavening influence not only in education but in community living are exceedingly interesting in relation to the pragmatic movement in America more than half a century later under the aegis of William James and John Dewey.

Froebel's later interest in esthetics and art were influenced by Winckelmann's *Letters on Art* and by Schelling's conception of God as the supreme artist, and nature as a vast work of art. He was equally under the spell of Schleiermacher, theologian of the Romantic movement. Schleiermacher was vigorously opposing the stern orthodox doctrines of the Lutheran Church and endeavoring to create a new evangelical theology. Schleiermacher's ideas were brought to Froebel through his older brother Christoph, his first wife and his two co-workers, Middendorf and Langethal, all of whom had been students of Schleiermacher.

Out of this new theology emerged a new conception of God, not as a stern and unrelenting judge but as a Divine Father. This idea carried with it as a corollary a new conception of man as the noblest creation of God. Though Froebel was never an ardent churchman, he was deeply religious, and was constantly persecuted for his religious views. He argued that, if man is the child of God created in His image, the child cannot be by nature evil. The new theology thus changed not only the conception of God and the nature of man, but also the relationship of man to God, and man to man. Under these influences Froebel conceived of human life and the aim of education as a sublime opportunity for revealing man's divine origin through self-expression and creative activity.

As this new theology transformed the Church into a more inspiring institution, so the same principles, as they crept into education, transformed schools into happy and homelike institutions for growing children, with a new attitude of teacher to child, child to teacher, and child to child. Though Comenius and Pestalozzi leaned decidedly toward this new theology and philosophy in their radical transformation of education, it remained for Froebel to accept fully the implications of these ideas and put them into practice.

It must be acknowledged that Froebel made many mistakes in his effort to apply his mystical symbolism, and his somewhat illogical attempts to systematize his philosophy. Many aspects of Froebel's philosophy, especially his emphasis on symbolism, have had to be entirely eliminated, clarified or modified in the light of modern science, philosophy, psychology and psychiatry. However, he left an indelible conception of education as a process of growth, a principle which Comenius and Pestalozzi had accepted without making it basic. Froebel's curriculum for the pre-school has also had to undergo radical pruning since his day, with the necessity for the substitution of better songs, games, stories and play materials. Nevertheless, the influence of his principles has crept upward to the university and downward to the nursery school, permeating all intervening levels.

Education conceived as a process of growth is Froebel's undying contribution to education, and, if in years to come scientific progress should be justified in eradicating every vestige of his curriculum, his fundamental principles of growth and self-activity, combined with his democratic attempts to reorganize the school, will survive as a challenge to progress.

KINDERGARTEN EDUCATION IN AMERICA

Relation to the Nursery School and Primary Grades. When we come to the study of the kindergarten as an integral part of public education in America, we must again compare and contrast the motives and conditions which led Froebel and his predecessors and contemporaries to turn their attention to the child too young to be accepted by the school.

The social motives which drove Oberlin and Owen to set up schools in their day must be contrasted with Froebel's later interest in the early years as a period for learning. Looking back upon his experiences as a schoolmaster, Froebel was deeply impressed with the results of neglect at this period, especially in its influence on later learning and character. With scant scientific knowledge regarding the young child's mental endowment and development available to Froebel, he was forced to fall back on his own limited observations and conclusions in his attempts to build curricula for early childhood.

As his curricula were in process of formation in what might be called a "pre-scientific" period, many mistakes were necessarily made, but when these are compared with the more

important fundamental experiences he introduced, minor faults in his program may now be disregarded. It should have been expected that a curriculum created before Froebel's death in 1852 would have been in dire need of revision by 1870 to 1890, when the kindergarten was fairly well established and ripe for the approaching reconstruction period.

During these intervening years the child-study movement had progressed rapidly, providing data which called for a revision of education all along the line. The kindergarten responded to this call more readily than the elementary or secondary schools.

Preceding Dewey and Hall, other educators who gave encouragement and assistance, either through studies or experiments, to the reconstruction movement, were: Francis Parker of Chicago; William Hailmann, translator of Froebel; Earl Barnes, Genevra Sissons and Frederick Burk of California; Frederick Eby of the University of Texas; and Elmer Brown, afterward chancellor of New York University.

Frederick Burk dedicated the records of his experiments in the Santa Barbara, Cal., kindergartens to Dr. Hall as follows: "To G. Stanley Hall, whose researches in child psychology are giving to the intuitions of Froebel scientific bases and selective critique."

It is a fairly well-recognized fact that the reconstruction movement in the development of the kindergarten had begun in Louisville, Ky., as early as 1890 to 1893. It must be granted that many mistakes were made as progressive kindergartners at that time had to work almost single-handed and alone. Changes multiplied much more rapidly when such psychologists and philosophers as G. Stanley Hall and John Dewey lent a hand with their newly-awakening interest in the educational possibilities of the pre-school years.

By 1895, G. Stanley Hall, then president of Clark University, the American center of the new child-study movement, issued a call to the American kindergartners through a questionnaire which he circulated. He followed this by an invitation to them to participate in a summer session which he offered, to be devoted largely to problems of kindergarten education. The first response to this offer was most encouraging, as thirty-five well-known leaders in the field presented themselves for the opening session. Though Dr. Hall must have known for some time of the opposition which had already arisen because of changes which had gotten well under way in Louisville and in Chicago, with his usual forthrightness he antagonized the traditional group at the outset by his criticisms of Froebel's early efforts and those of their great leader, Susan E. Blow. As a result, thirty-three out of the thirty-five of those present departed, leaving only two members who were willing to remain and coöperate with Dr. Hall and Dr. Burnham in the study of data which should be considered in mapping out new curricula for pre-school children.

Undaunted by this unexpected exodus, Stanley Hall and William Burnham expressed their willingness to go forward with their original plans if Anna E. Bryan of Chicago and Patty S. Hill of Louisville would remain to coöperate with them. This group of four—Hall, Burnham, Bryan and Hill—was thus left free to plan an ideal scheme of education for child welfare in early life. Many of the modifications proposed by this group as substitutes for current practice were far in advance of any immediate possibility of realization. The resemblance of the Hall-Burnham-Bryan-Hill program to curricula worked out a quarter of a century later for university nursery schools has frequently been commented upon. At the end of the summer, Miss Bryan returned to Chicago, where Miss Alice Temple assisted her, and Miss Hill returned to Louisville, both armed with data which inspired them and their co-workers in Chicago and Louisville to begin a more drastic transformation of formal practice.

By 1910 the validity of these reconstructive efforts were more or less widely acknowledged by the conservative opponents, who from this time forward accepted the progressive leaders as members in good and regular standing in the International Kindergarten Union. Thereafter, representatives of both the conservative and progressive points of view united their forces in a joint determination to make use of the most recent results of clinical research conducted in the universities.

This happy outcome was partly brought about by a committee appointed in 1903 by the International Kindergarten Union with equal representation from both the conservative and progressive points of view, and with Lucy Wheelock of Boston serving as the first chairman. This committee, called the Committee of Nineteen, was given full time and opportunity to study the differences between

the progressives and conservatives. This study was to be followed by a unified report growing out of compromises and principles of agreement; or, if this solution was impossible, each group was asked to make a short, definite statement of group opinion. The latter plan was found to be the only wise solution, and after a decade of meetings and discussions the two reports were published in 1913 in one volume, called *The Kindergarten*. Susan E. Blow was responsible for the report for the conservative group, and Patty S. Hill for the report for the progressives. Each member of the committee was left free to sign the report which best represented her point of view.

Another constructive move was made when, in 1905, Dr. James E. Russell, then dean of Teachers College, decided that the time was ripe for bringing into open discussion the marked differences of opinion existing among kindergartners themselves. A new department for graduate kindergartners was established where all opposing views could be presented and discussed, with Susan E. Blow and Patty S. Hill to lead the opposing groups.

The first two decades of the nineteenth century were a period of rapid growth in pre-school education, especially in America, England and Italy. Fortunately for the progress of pre-school education, it then became possible for the representative leaders in nursery-school and kindergarten education in all countries to visit one another, making critical studies from which all could benefit.

Causes for Recent Developments. G. Stanley Hall's contributions were utilized more in the reorganization of the kindergarten than in the primary school, but John Dewey's philosophy has practically transformed both. Though opposed by conservative thinkers, the Dewey philosophy has been from the first, and still continues to be, the great leavening force in transforming education all the way from nursery school to university.

Dewey's experimental school, established after he was called to the University of Chicago, served not only as a laboratory for experimentation, but provided opportunities for his own personal observations and studies regarding the fundamental impulses and interests of children. Some of the conclusions drawn from his observations were published later in monograph and book form. Among them were *My Pedagogic Creed, The School and Society* and *The Elementary School Rec-*

WORKING TOGETHER
In all their activities, kindergartners learn the necessity for coöperation.

ord. These interests of childhood may be summarized under the four following captions:

1. Conversation and Communication
2. Inquiry or Finding Out
3. Construction or Making
4. Artistic Expression

Adherents of the silent, passive school of the past, with children confined to fixed desks, studying or reciting, were greatly disturbed by the apparent disorder which followed the introduction of movable tables and chairs. Discussion also was introduced in the Dewey experimental school as a substitute for the passive recitation, following and summarizing experiences in studios, workshops, laboratories and children's libraries. These experiments, conducted before 1900, demonstrated a type of education strange to the eyes of conservative educators of the time. Many kindergarten and primary teachers, convinced of the soundness of Dewey's challenging principles, were blocked in their efforts by lack of equipment and funds necessary to carry over these ideals into the public schools.

A board of education or superintendent who understands the organic relation of equipment to curriculum objectives was then, and is still, greatly needed. The relation of

the scientific objectives in chemistry or biology to laboratory equipment in high schools is an accepted fact; but the same principles must be applied in providing kindergarten and primary teachers with the materials required for success in attaining the objectives of their curricula. Much waste of money will be avoided and successes in teaching multiplied when this organic relation of school supplies to curricula is understood.

This organic relationship between curricula objectives and equipment was first worked out through the studies and experiments conducted by Harriet Johnson in New York City. Her studies resulted in invaluable data on child development and equipment, as Miss Johnson herself persisted in remaining with the children, observing and recording, to the end of her life.

Kindergarten and primary teachers continued to work for understanding of their needs for equipment, as exemplified by Miss Johnson, despite weary years of hoping and waiting.

One of the earliest bequests for research in early childhood education was granted by Lizzie Merrill Palmer of Detroit. The bequest was left to establish a training school for "motherhood and home training." Edna White as administrator of the fund wisely decided that a nursery school for observation, participation and research was the first necessity. Accordingly, the Merrill Palmer Nursery School was opened in that city under Miss White's supervision in 1921. Mrs. Palmer's bequest introduced a more promising era when, in the late 1920's and for the first time in the history of education, generous grants to be used for research in early childhood education were offered a number of our best universities by the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Foundation.

The immediate benefits of these grants were at first limited to the children and teachers in these university nursery schools. But as the grants provided ample funds for clinical studies of nursery-school children and parents from every angle, nursery-school teachers were soon in need of data which could not be secured except through the participation of doctors, psychologists, psychiatrists, nurses and dietitians. Thus other faculties benefited in like manner, as both faculty and students were invited to participate in these clinics in order to contribute their findings to the case studies of children.

As a consequence of this widespread research, with findings coördinated by those in charge of the nursery-school children, more scientific knowledge of the nature and needs of early life was multiplied and passed on to other nursery schools, kindergartens and primary grades. In time, large numbers of children and parents benefited.

This was truly an epoch-making period in child welfare and early education, even though only a limited number of children could be accommodated in the university nursery schools receiving the grants. It was soon followed, however, by another epoch-making, widespread movement in child welfare, where results of all of this research could be utilized for the benefit of the children of thousands of unemployed parents at the darkest moment of the 1929 economic crash.

The newly elected Federal authorities of 1932 immediately found themselves confronted with millions of unemployed men and women with families in dire need of the barest necessities of existence. Those at the helm in Washington wisely turned to the nursery school not only as the best existing institution for child protection and development, but also as a beneficent means of providing jobs for thousands of unemployed whose services could be used to advantage in these child-protective centers. Fortunately for the good of all parties concerned. Washington called in the best authorities in the field of child development and welfare for advice and counsel.

As a result, the standards demanded before federal grants were bestowed upon local boards were of a high order. These boards had to give positive evidence of having secured sanitary quarters for the children, with light, air and ample space for indoor and outdoor play. With these improvements guaranteed, trained teachers were offered, together with medical, dietetic and nursing service. This generous program of child welfare gave employment to an untold number of unemployed doctors, nurses, dietitians, psychologists, stenographers, clerks, seamstresses, janitors, cleaning women and cooks.

On the whole, these Federal grants were well allocated, guided and supervised. This was the case especially at the outset, when high standards were most important. The finances granted at that time provided what had been tragically needed and urged for more than half a century by teachers of

children from needy families. Through this wise Federal decision, children of poverty and neglect became the beneficiaries of a reawakened and newly vitalized interest in child and family welfare, with funds provided to restore and improve the type of service which had been dropped from the programs of the early philanthropic kindergartens when they were placed under public-school administration.

Beneficent as these Federal grants were, it must be acknowledged that mistakes were made in these Federal nursery schools, as in all large-scale efforts to alleviate suffering and insecurity. However, not only was a new widespread ideal set up in the hearts and minds of the parents who for the first time saw daily demonstrations of enlightened methods of child care, but a new vision was revealed to all who participated and visited. Among the thousands of observers who confessed that they were deeply impressed with the consequences that follow when the young child's right to intelligent guidance is respected, were representatives of all classes of society, from school administrators and doctors to janitors and cooks.

Another priceless effect of this widespread wave of interest in child betterment was the fact that both the mothers and the fathers endeavored to apply their new knowledge to an improvement of home and family life.

Perhaps the most outstanding benefits are yet to come, as kindergarten and primary teachers in the public schools are now requesting the same benevolent provisions for the children in their care. They argue that if the government found it possible to provide such benefactions for children in the Federal nursery schools, these same services could certainly be made available for all children in the kindergarten and the primary grades of our public schools.

It must be acknowledged that these long-continued requests for provisions for such care for kindergarten children in our public schools have been heeded by only a limited number of outstanding superintendents and boards of education. But in our criticism of administrators in their undoubted neglect of the younger child, we must realize the unprecedented handicaps they face in a period when school budgets are necessarily being curtailed, rather than expanded.

MODERN IMPROVEMENTS IN THEORY AND PRACTICE IN NURSERY SCHOOL, KINDERGARTEN AND PRIMARY GRADES

If an intelligent observer who had not visited the kindergarten for half a century entered one today, like old Rip Van Winkle he would rub his eyes with surprise at the marked improvements which have been substituted since his last visit. Such an observer would see the same Froebelian theories of self-activity and development used as guiding principles, but he would discover them applied through far better methods of teaching and with new improved materials and equipment substituted.

These improvements may be listed under the following headings:

1. Larger and more artistic play materials and equipment;
2. Improved methods of teaching through utilization of the laws of learning, as opposed to traditional methods;
3. Emphasis upon sanitation and health in the new curriculum, and demands for sanitary rooms, equipment and modes of cleaning;
4. Improved standards of literature and art in the types of stories, songs and dramatization used;
5. Increasing opportunities for first-hand experience in nature study and elementary science;
6. Emphasis on guidance through increasing utilization of self-expression and social coöperation in the social organization of the class;
7. Improved methods of parental guidance, using individual and group conferences with teachers and parents in coördinating home and school;
8. Unified curricula and coöperation between the nursery school, kindergarten and primary grades.

Larger and More Artistic Play Materials and Equipment. If our imaginary Rip Van Winkle returned to observe a modern kindergarten after a lapse of years, he would search in vain for even a remnant of the original Froebelian materials, so small and light as to strain the immature muscles of eye and hand now known to be weak and poorly coördinated in early life. The tiny cubes, circles, squares and triangles inherited from Froebel's day are poor materials for construction at this stage of child life, as one

slip of immature fingers, or even a deep breath, may annihilate the child's production in the twinkling of an eye.

Former so-called "occupations" with paper to be sewed, folded, cut, pasted or woven into abstract geometric figures have likewise disappeared. These materials are easily torn and disfigured in the processes of folding, cutting and weaving, and they lead to products of slight interest to the little worker dependent upon teacher dictation or direction. These activities also have given place to occupations of absorbing interest, such as sewing with large needles and stitches in making doll clothes which are of necessity exceedingly simple. With hammer and saw, furniture is constructed for the doll house. Instead of paper strips for weaving, the children are given large, soft twine and yarn with which to weave their own rugs on self-made looms, or to braid their harness for driving horses.

The new blocks are much larger, some being a yard in length, and are made of heavier wood, in order to call into use the large fundamental muscles of the child's whole body, which must be exercised as an immediate requirement of health.

While it is possible for the child to work alone with these larger construction materials, sooner or later, as he transfers his construction from table to floor, building bridges, tall houses and ships large enough to enter, and as he climbs, fetches and carries alone, he inevitably discovers his need for another child to coöperate with him. When he mounts a safe, low stepladder provided for the purpose, to place a roof on his house or bridge, he discovers the economy of effort in social coöperation. Here we have the true origin of genuine social coöperation; namely, the need of one person for another person in creating social projects. The child also finds that social coöperation requires modifications of his original plan which, as it grows, demands the use of the suggestions offered by another individual or the group.

Manufacturers have responded to the demand for these larger materials, providing slides, "jungle-gyms" for climbing, swings, see-saws, teeter boards and merry-go-rounds, adapted to the size and maturity of the children. Kindergartners have also introduced many home-made materials of their own invention, such as loaded kegs for rolling, and large, hollow blocks for reaching, stretching, lifting, pulling and pushing. These are all normal modes of exercise essential to growth. Through such innovations as these the sedentary habits developed by chair and table, which the former small materials cultivated, have now been excluded.

Geometric drawing, introduced by Froebel partly because of his passion for mathematics, surveying and architecture, has also disappeared from the curriculum. Instead, children now use charcoal, gay crayons, large brushes and pails of bright-colored paint, while standing at large easels illustrating their own conceptions of the world they are trying to understand through genuine self-expression.

LARGE BALLS FOR PLAY

They have replaced the small ones used in the first kindergartens, in the interest of more vigorous play.

Large, soft balls stimulating vigorous rolling and tossing on the floor or in the playground are now substituted for the tiny ones formerly used for table play. Soft wood has been introduced with strong tools, so that with saws, hammers and nails, children may safely learn to make their own toys. Dolls play a large role in dramatizations of home and community life, and also serve as motives for construction.

All these substitutes have come to stay, but in improved form as kindergartners and manufacturers learn by experience the more specific interests and abilities of children.

Improved Methods of Teaching Through Utilization of the Laws of Learning. Traditional methods of teacher-dictated products, formerly called "forms of life," and balanced-symmetrical figures, called "forms of beauty," were more emphasized by early disciples of Froebel than by Froebel himself. Today, these have practically gone out of use and given way to self-expression in painting, drawing, modeling, carpentering and so on.

The new methods and materials provide wider scope for the child's innate interest in manipulation as he discovers for himself the qualities and possibilities of new materials; or they serve as raw materials through which the child can work toward an end or purpose which he has in his mind and desires to attain. A wise teacher allows the child to experiment and discover his own ways and means for arriving at goals. The same educational principles are applied as the child learns to create his own dramatic plays, displacing the former teacher-dictated games.

Discussion of children's own ideas is now substituted for what was formerly called the "morning talk." In the previous method, the morning talk was largely given over to the teacher, who addressed a self-active, wriggling, inattentive group of children endeavoring to keep still while their teacher imposed her ideas on a group disciplined to assume, at least, an appearance of attention in order to avoid correction.

Differences of opinion, which naturally arise among children in work and play and which easily lead to quarrels and fighting, the teacher now endeavors to handle not by scolding, punishment or other such corrective means. Instead, she tries to compromise differences by building up public opinion of right and wrong through discussion and exchange of ideas between the children themselves and the teacher as leader of the group.

Emphasis upon Sanitation and Health in the New Curriculum. When the kindergarten was originally introduced into American schools, architects were not supposed to make a study of the need for more indoor and outdoor play required in all self-active forms of education for either the kindergarten or primary grades. The demand for more spacious and beautiful quarters for both kindergarten and primary grades is now rapidly increasing, and in many cases school administrators and architects are providing the most sanitary and aesthetic rooms in the school building for children at this most impressionable period of life.

Separate toilets and wash rooms with all facilities adapted to the height and manual skill of young children, where they may learn the processes of self-care, are now included in the blueprints of architects' plans. Such plans call for the equipment necessary for the application of the health aspects of the new kindergarten curriculum, in teaching the

LEARNING TO CLEAN UP AFTER WORK AND PLAY

importance of clean hands after use of the toilet and before and after eating. As germs of most diseases of early childhood are hand-carried, such equipment is an absolute requirement for health, through the prevention of the spread of disease.

Where double sessions are in use, now unfortunately limited to privately supported progressive schools, separate rooms are often added that children may be taught the arts of relaxation and sleep following periods of vigorous play. This practice is based on sound principles of health building.

Parents are now being taught to isolate any child manifesting symptoms of contagious or infectious diseases, including symptoms of the common cold. Higher standards of sanitation in cleaning and disinfecting rooms in the school are being adopted. Children themselves are now taught orderly habits in housekeeping, such as learning to pick up scraps, to replace toys and tools, and to rearrange furniture after work and play. The new curriculum of health gives an honored place to teaching such habits of personal cleanliness as the covered sneeze and cough, use of paper handkerchiefs, care in expectoration, and proper disposal of throat and nose accumulations.

As progress in education on all age levels has introduced doctors, nurses, psychologists and psychiatrists into the public schools, a kindergartner in our best public schools now is given able coöperation in carrying through her curriculum of physical, emotional and mental health.

Through parental guidance, all innovations in preventive and corrective health set up in the school may be carried over and applied in the home. Thus there is hope for more undisturbed growth in physical and mental health through elimination of preventable disease.

Improved Standards of Literature and Art. In the early history of the kindergarten there was a dearth of stories, songs and games. A movement had preceded this, especially in Europe, where students of folklore made collections of folk songs, tales, games and dances in a newly awakened appreciation of the artistic values of folk materials. Froebel reveals the influence of this movement, in a collection of finger plays and games which he and his first wife made during their early studies of the instinctive responses of mothers at play with their own babies. This collection, later translated under the title *Mother Play Songs and Games,* was all too highly revered by the pioneer kindergartners in both Europe and America. As standards of musical taste advanced and a knowledge of the young child's limitations in mastering difficult musical intervals increased, these songs were discarded in favor of simpler, shorter and more childlike songs written by good composers.

In like manner the stories available for kindergarten purposes were in the main myths, fables and legends, ill-suited to the mental level of young children. Collections of moral stories in poor literary form were written to impress children with the virtues and faults of childhood as viewed by adult society. Neither of these types of stories in any way provided suitable literature for young children. They took no account of the principles of child psychology.

American composers were finally induced to lend their talents to the improvement of songs for kindergarten and primary children. These new collections of songs improved from year to year, meeting the demands for higher musical standards and giving evidence of the composer's growing insight in using children's interest and in adapting the music to their ability to listen, sing and dance.

A comparable movement followed in the demand for better rhymes, stories and verses. Literary standards also had to be adapted to the child's shorter attention-span, in the literary portrayal of subjects drawn from his daily experiences. These improved collections included stories intended for the kindergartner to tell or read to the children. Later, the market was flooded with books possessing literary merit and illustrated by some of the world's best artists. These beautifully illustrated books, placed in the hands of the children themselves, ministered to their natural tendency to learn through pictured experiences.

As fast as limited funds made it possible, the books were purchased by kindergartners and placed in the "Library Corner." Kindergarten libraries spread rapidly with books on low shelves within easy reach of the children themselves. The wide freedom given the children in selecting and handling these valuable books brought about the necessity for instruction in library techniques worthy of imitation by students of mature years.

As the kindergarten library increased, it was discovered that these illustrated books, with their printed explanations below each picture, or on the opposite page, greatly stimulated the desire to learn to read, especially among the older children on the eve of promotion to the first grade. This maturer group seemed to covet the independence of the teacher in her ability to get and give meaning to the illustrated page. In other words, the older kindergarten child discovered the printed page as a medium for interpreting his world before he was introduced to the reading program of the first grade.

The folk games inherited from Froebel's collections of finger plays were adapted by the early kindergartners for use as games to be played on the so-called "Circle." These games were improvements on the small finger-play mode of expression in Froebel's *Mother Play* book, because they appealed to the child's desire to exercise his whole body in play. Later experience, as freer play opportunities were introduced, revealed the child's ability to create his own dramatizations of life. The highly organized games of the former era which had to be taught to the child by the kindergartner were gradually withdrawn in favor of the child's own creative and self-expressive dramatizations.

The kindergarten budget therefore soon

included a request for a new kind of equipment. Small tubs, washboards, brooms and scrubbing brushes, together with dishes, spoons, kettles and dishpans were needed, with real instead of imaginary water and

LEARNING GARDENING

soap, doll clothes to be laundered, and play houses to be kept clean and in order.

These very real experiences with things and people were found to be far more interesting than mere gestures imitating social activities, which might often be ill-understood and mystifying to children without actual experience, as a stimulus to spontaneous expression.

All these substitutes for songs, stories and games used in earlier curricula not only lifted the cultural value of the materials themselves, but initiated a new epoch in teaching young children through their own interests and experiences to create their own rhymes, songs, stories, rhythms and dances. These immature child creations not only increased children's ability to express their own ideas in various forms but developed a finer appreciation of the beauty in materials written or composed for them by gifted adults.

First-Hand Experience in Nature Study and Elementary Science. Early students of the spontaneous drawings and dramatizations of young children discovered that first-hand experiments with natural forces or things, and observation or participation in the social activities of people, were the chief interests of early childhood. As the study of these deep-seated interests in the activities of nature and people continued, they were recognized as the starting point for later studies in the physical and social sciences of the elementary school. Teachers then realized their own need for a better background of scientific knowledge if they were to steer the children's interests in the direction of later scientific values. In preparation for this work they were forced to increase their own stock of scientific knowledge and methods by studies of science in the universities.

It requires very little acumen to recognize scientific materials for instruction when labeled as such and placed in a textbook, but to discover scientific values in everyday experiences of work and play demands imagination and insight. To take advantage of the children's interests in washing doll clothes, or sailing kites, and through these activities to bring scientific values to the consciousness of children requires a subtle art of teaching. When play activities are arranged so that children may experiment with sun, shade and wind in learning where doll clothes dry most rapidly, or with skills which must be mastered in redirecting forces in sailing boats and kites or rolling hoops, children may easily be made conscious of the scientific knowledge involved in these experiences.

Where outdoor space affords facilities for learning about the nature and needs of plants

A VISIT TO THE FARM

and animals, the proper techniques for producing better results in both are introduced into kindergarten curricula. Children learn best by first-hand contacts.

The use of excursions, which both Pestalozzi and Froebel so emphasized in their experiments, has been multiplied in spite of the fact that far heavier responsibility is placed upon the teachers of young children than on those conducting these adventures with older groups. It is true that excursions with younger children are difficult, but they provide valuable source material for instruction and are well worth the teacher's efforts, especially if she can show fathers and mothers the importance of their accompanying her and of sharing the responsibility for their own and others' children.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Importance of Guidance. Corrective work in kindergarten has always been gentle and humane, and on the whole enlightened, for by 1826 Froebel, in his best-known work, *The Education of Man,* clearly stated his guiding principles in matters of discipline and control as follows: "Education in instruction and training, originally and in its first principles, should necessarily be passive, following (only guarding and protecting), not prescriptive, categorical, interfering . . . for the undisturbed operation of the Divine Unity is necessarily good, cannot be otherwise than good . . . thus the duckling hastens to the pond and into the water, while the young chick scratches the ground, and the young swallow catches its food upon the wing and scarcely ever touches the ground."

BUTTER MAKING
This Horace Mann kindergartner is learning to make butter for Thanksgiving luncheon.

But for fear this might be interpreted as a purely laissez-faire policy, Froebel with equal conviction, taking another lesson from nature and the gardener, added: "The grapevine must indeed be pruned; but the pruning as such does not insure wine. On the other hand, pruning, although done with the best intention, may wholly destroy the vine, or at least impair its fertility and productiveness, if the gardener fails in his work passively and attentively to follow the nature of the plant."

These guiding principles expressed by Froebel in no uncertain terms throw several heavy responsibilities on the gardener (or educator):

1. The gardener must know the laws which he must obey in order to secure normal growth and wholesome development.

2. The gardener must be sympathetic, but must also be well acquainted with manifestations of abnormalities and those unbalanced forms of growth which may obstruct and reduce productivity;

DISH WASHING AFTER LUNCHEON

3. The gardener must acquire skill in the art of eradicating obstructions without undue disturbances of the growth processes.

Self-expression thus becomes a means to a higher end, requiring the mature insight and guidance of parent or teacher working with and through the children toward the goals of self-reliance and ability to coöperate with other people.

It requires little intelligence to "let children go" in unrestricted activity, and still less for an adult with a threatening scowl or rod to cower children into submission to authority. On the other hand, ability to guide so that children may gain an understanding of the ethical ends toward which they are working, the teacher meanwhile winning their coöperation in discovering the best means to this end, demands intelligence of the highest order in the art of teaching.

Guidance is indeed a difficult art for the teacher to master, and is easily misunderstood by untrained or unintelligent observers. Such misunderstandings grow somewhat naturally out of the fact that the teacher, endeavoring to keep herself more or less in the background, may appear as an idle onlooker, although at the very moment she may be concentrating on and carefully scrutinizing each child's progress. The teacher herself must possess a goodly store of knowledge and the techniques which the children must gradually acquire, while holding herself in readiness to offer criticism, information, suggestion or redirection in order to prevent waste of time and effort.

Guidance is no free and easy method of steering children's spontaneous activities toward worthy ends. It still leaves ample scope for the wise use of authority or command whenever danger threatens the progress or safety of the individual or the group. Many illustrations of prompt, unquestioning obedience to commands or signals easily come to mind, such as fire drills in the schools and traffic signals in the streets.

A study of the respective functions of (1) teacher, (2) children and the (3) materials of the curriculum as they react upon one another in the processes of teaching and learning in school life may throw light upon the social organization of the school.

These three constituent forces acting and reacting upon each other are as follows:

1. The *materials* of the curriculum serve two functions:

a. They provide the media for experimentation or for the expression of the child's ideas in process of formation or clarification;

b. Or again, some materials, such as literature, may be used as a means of summing up or clarifying individual or group ideas.

2. *Children*, as the chief learners in the school group, stimulate and check one another as they learn through social contacts the necessity for compromise and adjustment. In so doing they spontaneously offer criticism and information in the exchange of experiences and ideas required in coöperative projects.

3. Last but not least, guidance as the most subtle art of teaching depends upon a well-trained *teacher* skilled in fruitful observation, that she may record, advise and redirect the activities of the children in order to keep them moving in directions of worth to the child and to society.

The sum and substance of the art of guidance, deep and wide in its ramifications, means the wise interaction of these three—materials, children and teacher—in the social life of the school. When skillfully achieved this is the real test of good teaching.

Parental Guidance and Coöperation. Froebel was greatly indebted to both Comenius and Pestalozzi for the emphasis he laid upon the mother and the father in the education of the child. As a result all kindergartners of all schools of philosophy included parental participation even in the pioneer period.

We must acknowledge that these early attempts at parental guidance were frequently poorly planned and carried out, for advice and counsel were offered to groups of tired mothers and fathers at the end of an exhausting day in the home or the shop. But however poorly done, the good will manifested by all persons concerned indicated the worthiness of the attempt, and often produced surprisingly good results. The very fact that the kindergarten child, in the majority of cases, had to be accompanied to school by a parent or a mature member of the household gave the kindergartner an opportunity to become acquainted with the older members of the child's family—a contact usually denied the teacher in the grades. Mutual concern regarding the welfare of the youngest children invariably served as an entering wedge into the hearts and minds of the parents, inspiring their good will and their desire to coöperate with teachers.

Great progress has been made in this parental movement, especially in the well-equipped nursery-school clinics in universities which are sufficiently endowed to enjoy the coöperation of authorities in many fields of child welfare. Consequently, many progressive public and private schools today are including in their offerings to parents and teachers medical inspection and psychological and psychiatric clinical services where all the findings from varied sources of information are coördinated, giving parents and teachers a fairly dependable picture of the child as a whole. These coördinated records of each child furnish data for individual conferences with the mother or the father, or better still with both. Individual conferences are a vast improvement over the old group method, which fell back upon the teacher as a means of getting information and advice to the group. However, the lecture method is still in use where parental groups are sufficiently mature to coöperate in making their own programs, and in sharing in the selection of expert speakers on child welfare.

Parents are provided today with help and guidance never before offered in the history of education. On the whole, parents are responding with astonishing good will, joining forces with teachers in their war against the prevalent neglect of early childhood. It has been said by a judge in courts for children, that, if the thorough-going coördinated case-studies now provided only in the courts for child criminals, unfortunately all too late, could be introduced for school use at the nursery school and kindergarten period, criminality could be tremendously reduced.

Unified Curricula for the Nursery School, Kindergarten and Primary Grades. One of the movements most productive of good in early childhood education occurred (1930-31) when the former International Kindergarten Union and the Primary Council decided to unite their forces in a new organization called the Association for Childhood Education. This new organization includes nursery-school, kindergarten and primary teachers. Such merging of interests, with sections adapted to the requirements of teachers of different age-level groups, has reduced the frequent objectionable requests for teacher-

AT THE KINDERGARTEN SCHOOL OF IOWA UNIVERSITY
During the summer session the children take their naps out of doors.

absence at many conferences. This merger of two separate organizations—one for kindergartners, another for primary teachers—was epoch-making. It is resulting today in common aims, purposes and curricula built upon knowledge drawn from each field.

When this reorganization took place, the National Association for Nursery Education was urged to become an integral part of the larger organization. The nursery-school teachers decided against this proposition at the time, and still hold their national conferences at dates and places different from those of the Association for Childhood Education. However, the desire to learn from each other is still so strong that all three groups of teachers attend annual conferences of both groups when school finances and grants of leaves of absence make it possible. In time, the larger unification will undoubtedly take place for the good of all three organizations.

The valuable results which flowed from the unification of kindergarten and primary interests may best be appreciated when we take into account the fact that, formerly, kindergarten and primary teachers were not only trained in separate normal schools but were supervised after graduation by leaders from the two groups. This lack of coöperation between kindergarten and primary teachers caused a break in the child's life, with undue consciousness of the differences in ideals and in achievements required as the pupil was promoted from the kindergarten to the first grade.

The unification in training, supervision and organization of teachers of early childhood has produced whole-hearted coöperation and good will on the part of kindergarten and primary teachers, creating curricula so closely integrated that the child passes from one to the other undisturbed by the normal differences which legitimately survive as the child matures.

As the school and home agree on the common attitudes, ideals and objectives which must be disseminated in their efforts to protect and develop all the children of all the people, whether princes or paupers, we may hope for a better day, when society shall adopt and apply the appeal Froebel made to his own generation: "Come, let us live with our children." With his deep reverence for all childhood and the rights of all life to grow, Froebel cast aside man's artificial distinctions between weeds and flowers, appealing to parents and teachers in these words: "Take care of my flowers, but don't forget my weeds."

PATTY S. HILL.

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*HISTORY OF THE ASSOCIATION FOR CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

I.K.U.—1892 MILESTONES 1942—A.C.E.

1892 — International Kindergarten Union organized July 15, during a meeting of the National Education Association, with 30 charter members. In the following year, 39 additional members paid dues and nine groups of kindergarten teachers affiliated as Branches; eight were city Branches and one a state group.

Purpose of the organization:

To gather and disseminate knowledge of the kindergarten movement throughout the world.

To bring into active coöperation all kindergarten interests.

To promote the establishment of kindergartens.

To elevate the standard of professional training of the kindergartners.

1893 — Extension of public interest in the kindergarten by exhibits and model kindergarten rooms operated by I.K.U. at Columbia Exposition in Chicago.

First post-organization meeting of I.K.U. at Chicago, marked by stirring address by Sarah B. Cooper of California, first president of the organization.

1895 — I.K.U. meeting at Denver, in conjunction with National Education Association meeting, witnessed separation from N.E.A. and National Council of Women, with which it had been an affiliated body, and appointment of officers with determination to organize and maintain a separate existence.

(First formal and broad discussion of the "conservative" and "liberal" concepts of kindergarten methods took place at a meeting in Chicago of thirty-five leaders in response to invitations extended by G. Stanley Hall, then president of Clark University. As a result of Dr. Hall's

* All material up to this point appears in THE AMERICAN EDUCATOR ENCYCLOPEDIA. All material from this point, which was supplied by the Association for Childhood Education, is printed here especially for the fiftieth anniversary of the Association and does not appear in The American Educator Encyclopedia.

forthright statement supporting reconstruction of the traditional kindergarten methods, thirty-three of those leaders departed from the meeting. This occurrence was the forerunner of earnest discussions in I.K.U. meetings through many years.)

1896 — First meeting of I.K.U. as a separate organization held at Teachers College, New York City. In the words of Annie Laws, recording secretary, it made very apparent the objects for which the I.K.U. was striving—"to bring together leaders in the movement from all parts of the country to interchange ideas, thoughts and helpful suggestions, and to promote that high standard of excellence in the work and unity of purpose so necessary for its well-being."

1898 — I.K.U. meeting at Philadelphia was told organization had 30 Branches representing every section of the country and Canada, Japan and Mexico. Report of Committee on Training Classes revealed I.K.U. as developing into a common meeting ground for exchange of views and threshing out of problems by "conservative" and "liberal" groups.

1900 — At I.K.U. meeting in Brooklyn, N. Y., Caroline T. Haven, president, urged that in the sessions emphasis be placed on the right to individual opinion. A committee presented this resolution: "That we recognize as never before the service which the I.K.U. has rendered to the kindergarten cause in making it possible to have free and impersonal discussions of vital questions, believing that through the candid presentation of different phases of work from many standpoints must come clearer insight, truer progress, and ultimately a general acceptance of the kindergarten idea." The meeting then proceeded to full discussion of the "conservative" and "liberal" concepts of training methods and curricula. Thus the I.K.U. again served as a forum in which differing opinions could be aired for the sake of gaining progress through unity.

1901 — I.K.U. membership totaled 7,116, including members of 74 Branches. Through this year and the years immediately thereafter, the "forum" idea held sway in annual meetings, resulting in marked and steady advances in the interests of the kindergarten.

1903 — Committee of Nineteen was appointed with equal representation of the conservative and liberal fields of thought, and given full opportunity and time to explore the entire field of ideas about kindergarten training and operation methods.

1909 — Committee of Nineteen presented its report at the annual meeting of I.K.U. It was accepted and printed in the proceedings of the annual meeting for that year.

1910 — By this time the validity of the reconstruction efforts was recognized, and thereafter representatives of both conservative and liberal viewpoints united forces, determined to utilize the most recent developments of research in the field of childhood education.

1913 — Report of Committee of Nineteen, presenting definite statements of group opinion, published under the title, *The Kindergarten*.

A Division of Kindergarten Education was created in the Office of Education, U. S. Department of the Interior, with the coöperation of I.K.U. and the National Kindergarten Association. During the next few years special collaborators in the Division, with their salaries paid by I.K.U., worked steadily and traveled extensively to advance the kindergarten.

1915 — Thirty representative educators in the kindergarten and primary fields met at Cincinnati during the conference of the Department of Superintendence of the N.E.A., and formed the National Council of Primary Education. Purposes were: (a) to further the use of activities in the primary school, (b) to bridge the gap between the kindergarten and the primary school, and (c) to cultivate a professional viewpoint among primary teachers.

1916 — N.C.P.E. held its first formal meeting in Detroit, adopting a constitution and electing officers. Ella Victoria Dobbs was elected president.

1918 — I.K.U. celebrated its Silver Anniversary in Chicago. Membership now 18,000; eighteen committees working in the interests of hygiene, child study, art, science, home and school philanthropy and social service.

This year marked the publication of the first general service bulletin, *Selected List of Stories to Tell to Children in Kindergarten, First and Second Grades.* (Requests are still received for the revision of this bulletin, published in 1928.)

"A Kindergarten Unit for France" was formed "under the auspices of the Citizen's Committee for the Conservation of the Children of America during the war, in affiliation with the International Kindergarten Union and the Children's Bureau of the American Red Cross in Paris."

1921 — Julia Wade Abbot was official delegate of the Federal Office of Education and of the I.K.U. to the First Pan American Education Conference, held in Honolulu, Hawaii. Barbara Greenwood of California was also an official delegate of the I.K.U. to this conference.

1923 — At I.K.U. meeting in Pittsburgh it was recommended that consideration be given to the purchase of ownership or operation of a magazine in the interest of I.K.U.

1924 — The new magazine, *Childhood Education*, was launched as the official journal of the I.K.U., with Williams and Wilkins Company of Baltimore as publishers.

A national Headquarters was established in the Investment Building, Washington, D. C., where it could "keep in close touch with the National Education Association, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, the Office of Education and other educational agencies."

1925 — Headquarters office moved to National Education Association Building, 1201 Sixteenth Street, Northwest, Washington, D. C.

Julia Wade Abbot attended the World Conference of Education, Edinburgh, Scotland, as I.K.U. delegate.

1927 — New emphasis appeared in I.K.U. committee reports:

Research Committee, "Present Status of Nursery School, Kindergarten, Primary Unification and Working Plans," Bessie Lee Gambrill, chairman.

Committee on Nursery Curriculum, Ada Hart Arlitt, chairman.

Committee on Nursery Education, Lois Hayden Meek, chairman.

Report of Conference on Nursery Schools, Patty S. Hill, chairman.

As a result of this new interest, there was organized the National Association for Nursery Education, with which the I.K.U. and the A.C.E. have coöperated through the years.

1929 — I.K.U. appointed a committee on reorganization as a preliminary to inclusion of nursery school, kindergarten and primary representation in a single organization.

At annual meeting delegates voted to assume publishing responsibility for *Childhood Education*. Pledges for a "sinking fund," made from the floor by Branches and other groups and by individuals, totaled $3735.27, the largest gift being $500 from the National Council of Primary Education.

The first full-time Executive Secretary was appointed.

1930 — I.K.U. adopted by unanimous vote a new constitution and the name, Association for Childhood Education (Nursery - Kindergarten - Primary), at annual meeting in Memphis, Tennessee.

One provision of the new constitution was that at least two membership service bulletins on current educational topics should be sent each year to contributing members and the president and secretary of each Branch organization.

Told Under the Green Umbrella, compiled by I.K.U. Literature Committee, published by the Macmillan Company.

1931 — National Council of Primary Education adopted by unanimous vote constitution and name of Association for Childhood Education.

1933 — Efforts made to prevent reductions in school services to young children.
Concern over financial affairs of the organization.
Told Under the Blue Umbrella, compiled by A.C.E. Literature Committee, published by Macmillan.
Issued first number of *Branch Exchange*, a bulletin especially for Branch officers.

1934 — Specific objectives for the year, based on resolutions adopted by convention delegates, were introduced.
Study classes inaugurated at Nashville meeting.
Full-time associate editor appointed for *Childhood Education*, with working space in Headquarters office.

1935 — Plan adopted for major financing of conventions through registration fee, national organization carrying main financial responsibility and hostess group providing meeting places and extremely simple hospitality.
Executive Secretary as delegate of A.C.E. attended conferences of International Bureau of Education in Geneva, Switzerland, and World Federation of Education Associations in Oxford, England.
Under the Silver Umbrella, compiled by A.C.E. Literature Committee, published by Macmillan.

1937 — A series of five books, entitled *Childhood*, edited by the A.C.E. Committee on Parent Education, published by Houghton Mifflin Company.

1938 — Studio plan of work introduced in A.C.E. convention program at Cincinnati.

1939 — Plan adopted by Executive Board to rotate annual convention among six sections or "regions" of the United States.
Executive Board adopted plan to maintain an annual A.C.E. Fellowship. Under this plan a teacher in service is chosen by the Executive Board from the region which will entertain the A.C.E. convention in the year following the fellow's service at Headquarters office.
Told Under the Magic Umbrella, compiled by A.C.E. Literature Committee, published by Macmillan.

1941 — Branches and members number:

Local Branches	477
State Associations..	31
	508
Contributing members.....	2,967
Life members	114
Branch members (approximate)	34,000
	37,081

Program for action centers on:
- Practicing democratic living.
- Improving the quality of living and learning.
- Encouraging adequate teacher preparation and growth.

Avenues through which this program operates are:
- Local Branches, State Associations, contributing and life members.

Publications:
- *Childhood Education*, a professional magazine for teachers of young children.
- Membership Service Bulletins, two each year, sent to contributing members and Branch officers.
- General Service Bulletins, sold to members and non-members.
- *Branch Exchange*, sent to officers of Branches.
- *Yearbook*, sent to contributing members and officers of Branches.

- Committees studying current educational problems.
- Coöperation with other national and international groups, working for the welfare of children.
- Annual convention program featuring study classes, studio, and group discussions.
- Individual information service.

Purpose toward which the Association works:
- Improved educational opportunities for *all* children *everywhere*.